Stambuloff. The Public Men of To-day series may well include the biography of stambulof, by A. HULME BEHAN (Frederich Warns & Co.), seeing that the subject was the first Bulgarian in mostern times who made a deep and lasting imprint upon history. So intimately, indeed, is the life of Stambuloff connected with the national existence of his country that a blography of the statesman is necessarily a record of the birth and growth of the principality. The biographer's qualification for the task is the fact that for many years he personally knew Stambuloff, M. Zankoff, M. Grekoff, M. Karaveloff, M. Petkoff, and all the other leading Bulgarian politicians and officers. If the view taken of his subject's policy should seem blassed, it is not, we are assured, so much that the biographer approves of Stambuloff as that he condemns his successors. On the whole, he has striven to offer an imparial estimate of the relative merits of his subject and of his opponents. His book is likely to remain for some time the best storehouse of information in English with regard to the recent history of Bulgaria and southeastern Europe.

Stepan Stambuloff was born on Jan. 31, 1854, in the town of Tirnovo, on the northern slope of the Balkans. During the period of the Turkish Comination Tirnovo was little more than a big village, but it has since risen to the position of thriving town, Stambuloff's brother has never left Tirnovo nor mixed in any way in party strife, but, devoting himself to business, has amassed a small fortune, and now leads the retiring life of a well-to-do merchant. Our subject's sister married Major, afterward Gen. Mutkuroff. Stepan himself was sent at an early age to the communal school, and remained there until 1868, when it was closed by Midhat Pashs, who was planning the supersession of all Bulgarian schools by those of the Turkish system. Thrown upon his father's hands, young Stambuloff was apprenticed to a tailor, but he managed in such holidays as he could secure to obtain instruction from a M. Shishmanoff, schoolmaster fresh from Paris. It was in 1869, at the age of 15, that Stambuloff took his initial atep in rebellion, by affiliating himself to the first revolutionary committee formed in Tirnovo. In the following year he and other young Bulgarians, in response to a petition forwarded to the Asiatic department of St. Petersburg, were admitted to the Odessa University. The two years spent in Odessa served to increase the determination and the capacities of the Bulgarian students for the task of liberation which they had set before them. At that period he Odessa University was a hotbed of Nihilists. and the Buigarians, intoxicated with the new ideas, threw themselves into the arms of the Russian revolutionists. A sudden raid was made by the police, and all of the Nihilists were arrested. Short work was made of the Russians, and the Bulgarians, as Turkish subjects, were ordered to quit Russian soli in twenty-four hours. Stambuloff was despatched to Galatz, whence he continued his journey to Bucharest. Here he found the headquarters of the Eulgarian revolutionary party, and at once entered into the closons with them. By them he was sent back to Buigaria, where he was as yet unsuspected, and, returning to his native town with the prestige of the Odessa university about him. he proceeded to reunite the fragments of the revolutionary faction, which, in his absence, had been roughly treated by the Turks. In the course of six weeks he had formed about forty secret societies and received from the central committee at Bucharest practically unlimited authority as their representative. While the Turks were searching for him eagerly he managed to penetrate to Constantinople, where he was presented to Gen. Ignatieff, the Russian Ambassador. Ignatieff sent him on to Odessa with a Russian passport, but, without delaying in the Russian city, he hurried on to Bucharest to report himself to his chiefs, It was in 1875 that he thus entered Bucharest for the third :. me. There he found that a split had taken place among the revolutionists. Karaveloff with the older members was for a Fabian policy, while Boteff, with the younger and more ardent spirits. was for a vigorous pushing of the committee system, to be followed by immediate action. It was with the latter that young Stambuloff threw in his lot, and in conjunction with Boteff he founded a revolutionary newspaper. He was touring through Roumania, recruiting for the cause, when the insurrection broke out in the proclamation without the Ministry, which Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Bulgarian revolutionists resolved not to let slip so good a chance, and their choice of an emissary who should have the management of the proposed uprising fell upon young Stambuloff. He determined to unfurl the flag of revolt at Esky Zagra, which place he reached in September. 1875. The uprising failed, for out of 7,000 men | brought in a Liberal majority, but a split arose who had promised to join him, only a little band of thirty appeared at the rendezvous. Escaping to Roumania, he met with an unpleasant reception. His failure was imputed to him as a crime; he was practically outlawed by his compatriots, and was soon brought to the verge of starvation. At last a fellow countryman had pity on him and sent him to Glurgevo, with a present of ten france. Here, by degrees, he got together about fifty kindred souls, and money at last began to flow in from Bulgaria. The irreclaimable conspirator now sketched out a new scheme. For revolutionary purposes he divided the whole of Bulgaria into four districts, and fixed the 11th of sy, 1876, for the rising. Although Stambu loff had been condemned to death for the E-ky Zagra episode, and although his portrait and description were in the bands of every luck in post, he managed to get into Bulgaria, and on the designated day occupied Orckhovitsa, a village not far from Tirnovo, with about two thousand men. This venture of the patriots met with no better luck than the first one; indeed, the consequences were more disastrous, for the Turkish authorities were now on the alert, and resolved to put down mercilessly the slightest revolutionary movement. It would be superfluous to enlarge upon this period of Bulgarian history. Enough has been said to show the leading part taken at the early age of twenty-one by Stambuloff whose imperious spirit and indomitable courage and energy seem to have marked him from the first as the natural champion of Bulgarian independence. The extraordinary influence and power of command over the most unruly materials which he was to show through out his career first manifested itself in the contest with the Turks. Often thrown over by his

HI. Escaping once more to Bucharest, he found there the greatest excitement, caused by the outbreak of the Turkish-Servian war. Volunteers were flocking to the Servian camp, and Stambuloff at once enlisted as Secretary to Gen. Kishevsky, in which capacity he saw some of the nighting of that brief campaign. It is well known that the Servian war was shortly followed by the Russian-Turkish war, one outcome of which was the independence of Huigaria. The decision of the Berlin Congress to leave Roumelia and Macedonia under Turkish rule was a cruel blow to the hopes of the inhauitants of those provinces, many of submit to the dominion of the cree-cent. Among the most active malcontents was stambuloff, who, in November, 1878, was their representative into Macedonia. Just within the borders of that province he estab. | that the interests of all the Balkan States and lished a species of small duchy, where, for a few months, he reigned in conjunction with the Metropolitan Michael. It was impossible, however, long to make head against the Tureish gendarmerie and regulars, and Stambi was recalled in the early accumer of 1879 to take his seat in the Chamber which was meeting at Tirnovo, This Chamber consisted of two classes of Deputies, the one chosen by the people and the other nominated by the Russian High Commissioner. It was quickly dissolved in favor of

self-elected chief, abandoned by his subordi-

nates, and with apparently not a vestige of

hope left to him, he never wavered in his pur-

pose, but pursued his ends with the persistency

and patience of a sleuthhound.

preed the elections for the Legislative Chamber. During this year, 1879, Bulgaria was born again, and endowed with all the institutions of a full-fiedged State, though it had no men sensed of the knowledge or experience required for the posts they were to fill. The Turkish cours were abolished and a new set of tribunals established, with a new code, This was Stambuloff's opportunity. Having a ready tengue and a wide popularity, he at once began to practice at Tirnovo as a lawyer, and from that date until he assumed the Regency was known as the cleverest member of his profession in Buigaria. For several years he kept comparatively quiet so far as polities was concerned, and simply occupied his place as Deputy for Tirnovo. There were already two distinct parties in Bulgaria, namely, the Liberals and Conservatives, the former being especially a Bulgarian or patriotic party, and the latter very Russian in its proclivities. It is needless to say that Stambuloff b longed to the Liberals, and they, obtaining a great majority in the second Legislative Cham ber, convoked in the spring of 1880, elected him as Vice-President. Much against his will, Prince Alexander, who had come to Bulgaria as a Russian nomines, called upon Dragan Zan-koff, then a prominent Liberal and Russophote, to construct a Cabinet. This advent of the Liberals to power raised the hopes of eastern Roumanis, and deputations from that province began to flock in, begging Rulgarla to accept a u ton. On the advice, however, of Stambuloff, who considered that the time was not yet ripe, the matter was dropped for the present, so far as roffs was concerned.

By the beginning of 1881 Prince Alexander had estranged the sympathies of the Bulgarians to an alarming extent by his open neglect of the Liberal or patriotic party. He had driven out of office Zankoff, who was then, as we have seen, a rapid Russophobe, and given the Premiership to Karaveloff, this being the fourth Cabinet formed in the course of one year. The Prince's notion was that he was better able to govern Bulgaria by himself than with the of the comparatively untutored Deputies and Ministers who were stumbling blocks in his way. Accordingly, in conjunction with M. Stolloff and Natchidivitch, he planned the coup d'état of April 27, 1881, by which he suspended the Constitution, turned out the Ministry, and named the Russian General Enroth as his Premier. Arrangements were made for a great Sobranje, or National Assembly, which, upon meeting, was to approve and confim the election of Alexander as Prince of Bulgaria, and to confer upon him the power of governing irresponsibly for the space of ten years. This project met with a stubborn resistance from the Liberais, but the elections were no longer free. The National Assembly, packed with nominees elected by force, met at Sistoff in July, 1881, and passed the proposed Septennate in less than ten minutes. The Sep-tennate baving been voted, Prince Alexander found himself, as he fondly hoped, an autocratic ruler in his adopted country. His first act was to hold some little private elections for a "Small Assembly" of forty members, whose sole duty was to be the voting of the budget. He also named a Council of State for elaborating laws and reforms, but it does not appear that its Is bors ever produced anything lasting. On the hand, the whole of Bulgaria began to seethe and boil under the surface, and, not l.king the aspect of affairs, the Prince applied to Russla to send him two Generals to "uphold his prestige." The Czar Alexander III. answered this appeal by saddling Bulgaria with a thoroughly Ru-sian administration, and the Prince was not long in finding out that even the Liberals were less objectionable. He had abolished the Constitution in order to govern by himself, instead of which he had merely succeeded in transferring the reins from the national party to a clique of St. Petersburg officers, and his endeavors to have a voice in the State were met by threats of dethronement. He was not one, however, tame ly to submit to such treatment, and a breach was soon opened between him and his imperial patron, who looked with the greatest disfavor upon his desire for independence.

III.

It was when smarting under this disap pointment that Prince Alexander was induced to promise a restoration of the Constitution. This was effected by the Little Chamber quietly voting an address begging him to return to the old order of things. The Prince consented on the spot, and signed included three Russian Generals, having an inkling of what was going on. they were apprised of it they resigned in a white heat, to the delight of the Prince and the satisfaction of the nation. M. Zankoff was made Premier and Gen. Cantacuzene took the place of Kaulbars as Minister of War. The elections in the party on the question of the Presidence of the Chamber. Zankoff wished Stambuloff to have the place, but a large section were in favor of Karaveloff. The contest resulted in the victory of Karaveloff, upon which Zankoff at once handed in his resignation, notwithstanding Stambuloff's strengous endeavors to persuade him to remain at his post. Karaveloff was now called upon by the Prince to form a Cabinet, whereupon Stambuloff, as a matter of course was elected President of the Chamber. The result of this incident was that Zan koff, from hatred of Karaveloff, joined the Opposition, and the Opposition threw itself into the arms of Russia. Up to that time Zankoff had been the most intense of Russo phobes, but he now turned into a Russophil-According to the author of this book, he had niwars proved himself a relf-sceker, and was never really respected, although the Bulgarians liked his homely ways and speech. His Russophilism grose not from conviction, but because having no hopes from the Government, he was obliged to accept Russian rubles to keep him-

self from want. Without retracing in detail all the important incidents in Stambuloff's life, we should note that it was mainly by him and Karaveloff that the union of eastern Roumania with Bulgaria was effected: that during the short war which ended with the complete defeat of the Servian army, Stambuloff fought as a private in Col. Nicolateff's brigade; that it was by Stambuloff that Prince Alexander was restored to the throne after he had been kidnapped, and that he was at the bead of the regency to which Prince Alexander transmitted authority after he had resolved to abdi-It was Stambutoff, we scarcely need remind the reader, who secured the election of Prince Ferdinand of Coburg as Prince of Bulgaria and who sustained him on the throne in the face of Kussian intrigue and domestic disaffection. Matters of recent history are Stambuloff's impatient resignation of the post of l'rime Minister, the political campaign which he organized against Prince Ferdinand, the persecution which he suffered at the hands of the soy ereign whom he had created, and which eventunify led to his assassination. As regards the newspaper assaults which he directed against Prince Ferdinand, Stambuloff acknowledged that they might be wrong, but excused himself upon the ground that they were the only weapons he had left. Through them he aroused public opinion, not only in Bulgaria, but all over Europe. His fundamental position was that Prince Ferdinand, by his declaration that Bulgaria cannot exist without Bussia, and by his attempt to obtain a reconciliation with whom declared that the; would never again | the Czar at any sacrifice, hast forfeited the confidence of his subjects. In Stambuloff's opinion the existence of Bulgaria, considered as an independent State, depends very largely upon her chosen by a number of committees to go as | external policy, especially upon her relations with Turkey and Roumania. He was convinced these of Turkey were identical, and this conviction was the backbone of his policy.

The greatest sufferer from the campaign undertaken by the ex-Premier against Prince Ferdinand was Stambuloff himself. The biographer tells us that a competent observer, wh Stambuioff's later acts, declared: " His achievement was so colorsal that no one but himself could destroy it. That is just what he is toing with his own hands." When he quitted the chair of President of the Potand, then a Cardinal, was suffered to rea second Assembly, which chose Frince Alexan- | Council, Stambuloff could remember with pride dar at Mattenberg as Prince of Bulgaria and de- how he had consolidated the union of eastern | maga, the widow of his brother, Ladislaus. In

single handed ogainst the kulnappers Prince Alexander; ruled it as Regent in the teeth of Russia; dr yen out the Russian Commissioners and Consuls; brought in a new Prince and liept him on the throne through a series of plots and dangers from within and without; reconciled the Church and State, and drawn close the ties between Bulgaria and her suzerain, the Sultan. All Europe recognized his services, and he stood on a pedestal so high that none of his adversaries could reach him. It was his desperate thirst for revenge that brought him down from his high place and put him, if not on a level, at least within reach of his foes. What took place at Sofia during the last month of his life was a meiancholy and degrading apectacle.

The book before us had been written and the proofs had been revised when the world was shocked by the news of Frambuloff's assassina tion. In a postscript the biographer points out that the foreigndipiomatic agents had repeatedly notified Prince Ferdinand's Ministers that if anything happened to Stambuloff the whole responsibility would fall upon them. This responsibility they deliberately undertook, man sick nearly unto death begged for leave to quit the town where he could not take a step without being followed by those who were sworn and paid to make an end of him. The leave was refused. By withholding from Stambutoff a passport, Ferdinand's Ministers signed the sick man's death warrant as surely as if they had led him out to execution. They and he knew it, and every man, woman, and child in Seda knew it. The question was simply one of What hurried the catastrophe is not yet definitely known, but the author of this book conjectures that a notorious Russophil leader, then on a visit to St. Petersburg, had been old by the Russophil Bulgarians there and by the Siar committees that, so long as Stambuloff lived, there was no hope of a reconcillation with Russia. Hereupon a message may have been sent that what had to be done were best done quickly. It is certain that the day before the murder, the Mir, the Government organ, published an article saying that the only thing to do with Stambuloit was to "tear his tiesh from his bones." The order was almost literally fulfilled. There was, indeed, no chance of escape from his fate. It is well known that the refusal to grant the passport was sanctioned by the Prince under the pretext that he did not wish Stamboloff to be touring about Europe talking against him. It was, however, interpreted differently in Bul garia. There everybody knew that a band of professional cutthroats were being kept for no other purpose than to clear away the great tinpediment in the way of the Russophils. It was known, too, that to compass the death of Stambuioff would be the best means of pleasing the Prince and the Government. Under such circumstances the task was not a very hard one to carry out. As latterly the only exercise Stambuloff ever took was between his home and the Union Club, down the Hakovsky street, it was certain that the murder would take place there. It seems that he often remarked to the author of this biography that he would be killed within those three or four hundred yards. Events have shown that his presentiments were

only too true.
With Stambuloff disappears the only person aifty capable of holding Bulgaria against the Russophils. The most prominent member of the Nationalist party left in Radoelavoff, who may make an effort, together with Petkoff, and possibly some of the army officers, to rally and effect a stand against Russia. But it is a dark and stormy future which opens for Bulgaria be youd Stambuloff's grave.

Interesting Questions in Church History.

The second volume of Studies in Church His tory by the Rev. REUBES PARSONS, D. D. (Pus tet & ('o.), deals with the period between the ninth and the fourteenth century, and discusses some forty topics which have been more or less

the subject of controversy. The readers of the earlier volume are aware that the author is not only a Catholic theologian, but a ripe scholar, who is listened to with respectful attention even by those who reject his conclusions. It is not to be expected that Protestants will concur in his view of cierical celibacy or in his judgment upon Wycliffe. Yet what he has to say on these subjects is singularly interesting, and the same thing of the chapters which treat of Abelard, of the Albigenses, of the suppression of the Tem-plars, of the Popes at Avignon, of the great Western Schism, and of Rienzi.

It is well known that one of the most difficult of the tasks imposed upon himself by Pope of the law of clerical celibacy. According to one contemporary, Leo of Ostia, when Gregory seconded the pontifical throne," one seadom found a priest without a wife or a concubine "; another contemperary, Lambert of Aschaffenburg, records that many of the clergy resisted the pontiff's " insane teachings," as they styled the decrees of collbacy, and declared that if "he proceeded to enforce them they would ooner abandon the priesthood than the con jugal state and then let Gregory seek for angels minister to the people of the Church of God." Hildebrand, however, could not be checked. In 074 he held a Plenary Counch of all the Bishops of Italy, and decreed that all corlestastical ministrations are forbidden to incontinent clergymen; under pain of deposition no clergyman shall marry; no one shall receive bly orders tode a he solemnly promises conineacy according to the decrees of and holy councils," It is well known that Moshetm, Potter, Ranke, and most Protestant authors condemn this decree of Pope Gregory VII. as an innovation upon ancient discipline, Dr. Parsons, on the other hand, undertakes to show that neither Gregory VII, nor any of the Benedictine pontiffs to whom Ranke ascribes the design of making monks of the secular clergy instituted the system of clerical cellbacy. Our author contends that the system is as old as the Church itself. It is pointed out that such was the opinion of St, Jerome in the fourth century; for he said that " Christ a virgin and Mary a virgin consecrated the love of virginity in both sexes. The apostles were either virgins or, after their nuptials, were continent." Again, in the third Synod of Carthago, the Primate Aurellus, speaking of celibacy, said: " Let us also follow what the apostles taught and what an tiquity observed." In the year 385, Pope Siricius addressed to Himerius, Bishop of Tara gons, a letter in which he declares the absolute obligation of ecclesiastical celibacy, and speaks of it in such terms as leave no doubt as to the antiquity of the custom. Himerius is ordered to communicate this apostolic letter to as many of the clergy in Spain and Gaul as he can reach Here then is a pontifical decres written seven hundred years before Hildchrand and yet en-Dr. Parsons, however, lays his finger upon cer-

folning the celibacy which lianke and others have described as an invention of Gregor, VII. It is customary to adduce the usage of the Greek Church to prove that married ciergymen may fulfill their duty with efficiency and zeal. tain points in the discipline of the Greeks which t reek canons do not allow a priest or deacon to contract matrimony after his ordination Secondly, they have nearly always prohibited matrimony to bishops. As a rule, the bishops are taken from the monasteries and when, lo chance, a secular priest is chosen, his wife, if he have one, must enter a nunnery. On the other hand, it is not disputed by Dr. Parsons that even in the Cathode Church since the time of Gregory, many dispensations from the obligation of celibary have been accorded to ecclealastics. Peter, Archbishop of Seville, and son of Ferdinand III., King of Leon, was allowed to marry th. Princess Christians of Denmark. In 1418, John, son of Albert, Count of Holland was permitted by Pope Martin V. to resign the of Liege and to marry Elizabeth of Luxemburg. Alexander VI. allowed Cusar Borgia. Archbishop of Valennia, to marry Charlotte d'Albret. In 1648, the Jesuit father, John Casimir of

sign the purple and marry Maria Louisa di Gon-

Roumella with Bulgaria; held the country | 1709 Clement XI. allowed the Cardinal, Francia of Medici, to marry Leonora di Gonzaga. The above instances of dispensation from the vow of cellbacy all occurred in the cases of Cardinais and Bishops. The only example in modern days of a validation of marriages on the part of priests is that by Pius VII, in the case of the French Constitutionals who had married during the Revolution. Many deacons have been al lowed to marry. Dispensations to monks, friare, and nums also are numerous. In 1177 Alexander III. allowed the Benedictine Monk Nicolas Ginstiniani to marry Anna, daughter of the Vitale Michell, in order that the great family of the Glustiniani might not die out; on condition, however, that when heirs had been born, Nicolas should return to his monastery. Again, Constance, daughter of King Roger of Stelly and a nun, was dispensed from her vows in 1191 by Celestine III, to marry the Emperor, Henry VI.

II. In the chapter on Abelard the author agrees with Larroque, Lallane, and other critics in pronouncing the so-called Letters of Heloise to Abelard no more genuine than are the letters of Sappho to Phaon. The true story of the relations of Heloise and Abelard is outlined by Dr. Parsons, who points out that the popular version is inaccurate in many particulars. Up to his thirty-fifth year Abelard seems to have led an exemplary life. About the year 1114, however, he made the acquaintance of the Canon Fulbert, a beneficiary of the Cathedral of Paris, and thus came to know the canon's niece, a beautiful young woman already renowned for her learning. Abelard offered to reside in the canon's house, and, besides paying his board, to act as tutor to Heloise. The offer was accepted, and Abelard himself, in an authentic letter, tells us in delicate terms that Heloise eventually became a victim to his and her own passions. In time, her condition compelled her to leave secretly her uncle's house, and to betake herself into Brittany to the care of a sister of Abelard. There she gave birth to a son. When the Canon Furbert discovered the state of affairs he naturally insisted that marriage should take place between the parties. Abelard was entirely free to marry, for, although a cleric, he was not in holy orders. He would have married Heloise from the beginning had he not been ambitious of ecclesiastical preferment. He now, lowever, asked her to marry him, and although she at first refused, on the ground that matrimony was full of vexations, he persisted until she yielded. Her uncle consented that the union should be kept secret for the sake of Abelard's ambitions, but proud of having agreat philosopher for a nephew, soon began to boast of the marriage. Thereupon Heloise denied that she was married, and great scandal enanci; finally Abelard persuaded his wife to quiet things by retiring for a time to the Convent of Argenteull, where she had been educated. She might put on the nun's habit, he said, but she was by no means to take the veil When this came to the ears of Fulbert and his kindred, they imagined that Abelard had tired of Helpise and had ridden himself of an encumbrance. Maddened at the fancled insult, and burning for revenue, they attacked the unfortunate Professo, and barbarously mutilated him. For this outrage Fulbert was deprived of his benificue, and the actual perpetrators are said to have been punished by the same mutilation they had inflicted. After his recovery the humilitated Abelard moved, as he himself testifies, more by shame than by devotion, took the ma-tic habit in the famous Benedictine Abbey of St. Denis Hel lee took the veil at Argen-

teuil, and in the course of time became Prioress In the chapter on the Albig maes is quoted the

summing up of their errors by Peter of Vaux-

Cernay. For those who believed this summary

to be truthful, the crusade against the Albi-

genees may well have seemed a duty. The sec-

of the convent.

taries who took their name from the city of Albi had for the basis of their doctrine Maniches ism, variously modified, however, by the vagaries of different heretical leaders. They held, it appears, that there are two creators the good God, creator of the invisible world, and the evil god, creator of the visible. The latter was the author of the Old Testament, and was a liar, for he told our first parents, said the Albigenses. they would die if they ate of the bidden tree: the former was the author of the New Testament, and this part of Scripture alone the Albigenses respected, together with such passages of the Old Testament as were inserted in it. The evil god was a homicide for he destroyed Sodom, Pharach's hosts, and the Egyptions and he was the author of the Deluge The good God cures souls, the evil one bodies. All the patriarchs, prophets, &c., are damned: John the Eaptist was one of the greater demons. The Christ who was born Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) was the enforcement | in the visible rethiehem and crucified at Jerusa- | and his own appearance in St. John | in crun's, lem was a wicked man; Mary Magdalen was his concubine. The good Christ, who was born and crucified in an invisible sphere, was never in this world, unless spiritually in the body of Paul. The Roman Church was denounced as a den of thie as and the whore of the Apocaly pae All the sacraments were denied. Matrimony was whoredom, and no one who begat children could be saved. Our souls were declared to be the apostate spirits of heaven; these, after many transmigrations, would return to their first bodies, which, after their rebellion, remained glorified in space. For this present body there is no resurrection. There were, we should add, two orders of Aibigenses, the se-called "perfect" led an apparently austere life, observing a rigerous continence and professing a horror for lies and oaths; the ordinary believers lived like other mes and were often of irregular morals, assuming that they could be saved by the faith and the imposition of hands of the perfect This account of the Achigensian doctrines is confirmed by the profession of faith signed by the numerous converts who were convinced of their errors at the conference of Painters ! 1210. The progress of the Albigensian heresy among the nobles in the south of France in the latter part of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth century is attributed to their luxurious life, which passed in love and lov. In tournaments and play. The troubadours, who wardered from castle to castle, and found welcome at every Provencal court, scattering their railleries on hely things in promiseques assertblies, and sparing neither Bishops nor pricate, monks nor nuns, excited and sustained an indifference and ultimately an aversion for the ministers of the Church. In the cities the middie classes welcomed doctrines which flattered their tastes, and the desire of enjoyment per-

mitted them by their wealth. As to the long and cruel war which followed and resulted in the devastation of Provencalspeaking lands, and the extermination of the A bigenses, Dr. Parsons does not hold himself bound to defend its excessor, or to write a panegyrie upon Simon de Montfort. There is one alleged facident of this war, however, which he deems himself obliged to examine. Nearly every encyclopædist, and such historians a Sismonds, Michelet, and Henri Martin record an act of barbarity on the part of a l'apai legate which has no good historical foundation. We refer to the order said to have been given at the storming of Beziers: "Strike, strike; God will distinguish His own." Dr. Parsons reviews the are generally overlocked. In the first place, the | five contemporary narratives of the action, and shows that those who were participants or witnesses make not the slightest allusion to the sangulaary order, and that the sole authority for it is a monk, who was six hundred miles from the captured city, and who only reports

the incident on heareny evidence. It is well known that Protestant authors have made the crusade proclaimed by Innocent III. against the Aibigenses the ground for a charge of intolerance and crucky against the Catholic Church. Dr. Parsons decilnes to argue the question whether heretics ought to be converted r punished by fire and sword. He points out, however, that the Albigenses, besides being heretics, were enemies of public order; the very existence of society was threatened by then They taught that marriage was a crime. What government, even in the nineteenth century, would like to see that doctrine embraced and practically carried out. They taught that all the pastors of the Catholic Church were devouring wolves, and that they should be exterminated; nor was their their talk more idle declamation; wherever they injury for injury to the offender-literally an manor house.

could, they reduced it to action. Were the faithful to quietix how their heads and allow the extirpation of all they held most dear? Were Christians to be made to tolerate their own destruction? At the same time, it is acknowledged that the crimes committed by the crusulers of Simon de Montfort are not to be excused, but we are reminded that Pope Innocent III. was far from excusing them; he would have punished them could his voice have been heard. Such is the verdict of the impar tial Duthell, who declares that, of all the ministers of the Church connected with the crusade, Pope Innocent III, had the least reason for selfreproach.

IV.

The object of the chapter on the suppression of the Templars is to show that, whatever may have been the motives which actuated Philip the Fair, Pops Clement V. simply performed his duty in putting an end to an organization which had survived its usefulness and had become a scandal to Christendom. The fact is noted that, of the 140 Knights interrogated at Paris, only three of them denied the charges of gross im purity. The truth of the same accusations was admitted by 111 Templars subsequently examined at Troyes. Pope Clement V. himself ques tioned 72 Knights, and they all avowed the crimes charged by the French Inquisitor. It was in view of this and additional evidence laid before the fifteenth general council that, in 1312, Pope Clement V. decreed the abolition of the Order of the Temple. This decree was not made, as has been alleged by certain apologist of the Templars, in a secret consistery, but was published by the Pontiff in full council. As to Voltaire's assertion that the confessions of the Templars were extorted, Dr. Parsons does not attempt to defend the use of torture medieval law courts, nor does he deny that the torture was applied to certain Templars. But he does deny that this was true of the great majority of the knights ex amined, who, nevertheless, admitted guilt. Stress is also laid upon the fact that of the thirty or forty thousand knights who survived the so-called persecutions of Philip the Fair and Clement V. none attempted to justify the order. Michelet himself admits that in the published interrogatories the denisis are nearly all identical, as though according to a settled formula; while, on the contrary, the avowals are all varied by special circumstances, and often very naïve, thus exhibiting a peculiar stamp of veracity. The contrary would have been the case if the avowals had been extorted by torture: then they would have been nearly alike, and the diversity would have been found in the denials. Dr. Parsons observes in conclusion, that much of the sympathy which has been manifested for the Templars is due to the connection, rightly or wrongly supposed to exist between the unfortunate order and Free masonry.

was a laundress and water carrier; his father a tavers keeper, although Cola himself boasted or being an illegitimate son of the Emperor, Henry VII. Like most young Romans, even in our days, he was familiar with the great names of Roman history, and, after a youth passed in as similating the a pirations of the classic writers. his early manifeed found him living among the monuments of an irrevocable past. All his studies broseled him to an attempt essentially impossible, namely, the respectation of a peo ple from its tomb He unquestionably possesses qualities fi ted to make him a successful revolutioniat. It's figure was at once beautiful and maje tie, his features were exceedingly mobile; his smile was mag cal; his voice sweet

In one of the last chapters is sketched the

story of Nicholas Gabrini, known to history as

Cola di Renzo, or simply Rienzi. His mother

but sonorous; his conversation passionate and entrancing: his style of writing elegant, though highly colored. He was, however, inconstant vain, and weak in judgment; often, even at serious crises, his imagination prompted him to play the mountebank. Rienzi made his entrance into public life in 1344, having beer chosen by the Romans to urge upon Clement VI. the necessity of transferring the Holy See from Avignon to Itome. At Avignon he made a great impression on Petracch, and his friendship with that poet, then at the height of his fame, led the Pontiff to grant him a daily audience during several weeks. On his dismissal he was rewarded with the Incrative office of of the Apostolic Chamber, In 1347 we find him again in Rome, and risen to such a beight in popular esteem that he dared to upbraid the nobles publicly as "drinkers of the blood of the people." On this occasion a Colonna struck him in the face, but generally the patricians simply ridiculed his demonstractions. Such demanage tracks as his exhibition of pictures on the wails of St. Angelo showing the wees of Rome and the imminent has see of God, cause of Rome's having "just its two eyes, the Pope and the Emperor" such tricks only excited smiles in many even of those who desired the accomplishment of his promocs, Eventually Rienzi added the part of consulraor to that of demagague. Among the middle classes he soon recruited a large number who swore to cooperate with him, and only awaited

his signal to act. Chance a lording an oppor tunity on May 1, 1347, when most of the barons had left the city in quest of grain, Rienzi sent trumpeters to every quarter inviting all the citizens to meet him at the Capitol to debate on he amelioration of the "good estate." Nearly all Rome assembled at the appointed hour Rienzi made one of his fervent addresses and read a proposed constitution. The cities were to be guaranteed from all oppression by the barrons; a citizen militia was to be enrolled, and a navy was to protect the coasts; the nobles were to keep the roads safe, but no patrician should have a fortress or stockade within the walls; justice was to be prompt; no trial was to be prolonged beyond a fortnight; the Government would establish granaries for the benefit of the poor: widows and orphans, espepecially if made such by war, were to be at the charge of the State; each commune in Italy was to send two representatives to a general Congress in Rome and an Italian Confederation was to be promoted; above all, the Pope-King was to return to his see and capital. The people gladly seelsimed these provisions; the two Senators, Sciarra Colonna and John Orsini, were chased from the Capitel; and Rienzi, joined estensibly in authority with the Papal Vicar, at once assumed a dictatership. Quick work was made with the barons; they were all forced to retire to their castles in the country, after swearing not to disturb the roads. The Pontiff, the Emperor, the King of France, and the Italian powers were at once notified of Rienzi's accession to the tribunate, Queen Jane of Naples and the two rivals for the Imperial crown, Louis of Bayarla and Charles of Luxemburg, received his ambassadors with honor; Florence, Siena, and Perugia sent him troops; the cities of Um bria sent Deputies for his Congress; the Gaetans gave him ten thousand golden floring, a very large sum at that time, and the sovereignty of their city: Venice and the Visconti declared themselves his ailies. Most of the princes in northern Italy, however, at first regarded Rienzi as a lunatic, and the King of France wrote to him as if to a tradesman, sending the letter by a common soldier. Pope Clement VI., for his part, deemed it prudent to send let ters to the Papal Vicar in Rome, and to the Roman people, in which he accepted the new Constitution, although condemning its irregular origin. Prescutly news came to Avignon of the comparatively contented state of the Roman people. Justice reigned among them, for crime was punished without distinction of person. Once more the present cuttivated his fields in security and the pilgrim made his journey upon lested to the tomb of the apostles. The Tribune and cronted a "chember of justice and peace" for the enforcement of the ancient and now revived law of retaliation, icr. talionis; its Judges were chosen from among the most irreproachable of the plebeinns. This method of atoning for injuries was so enthusiastically accepted by the itomans that its exercise became a fanaticism. It appears that, when adversaries were brought to this "chamber of peace," each swore to leave it reconciled. Then the offended party rendered

eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth. An embrace followed, and enmity was at an end. We are told that once a man who had just gouge out another's eye ran to the tribunal voluntarily, and, when his victim appeared, he fell on his knees, turning up his face for the retallatory treatment. The injured man refused the proffered satisfaction; then ensued a struggle between "justice" and charity; finally the culprit left with both eyes, a fast friend of the other, Rienzi's enterprise was essentially fantastic.

and could not last; morever, his own affectations fast alienated from him his only sure trust, the love of the Roman people. This plebeian, who had discoursed eloquently on the simplicity of the aucient Quirites, manifested more selfishness than any baron, and displayed a luxury more fastidious than that of any contemporary monarch. Even his wife never showed herself unattended by ladies of bonor, whose chief duty was "to fan the flies from her face." He even usurped the prerogative of a supreme ruler, by coining money with a stamp of his own effigy. While his ambition was overweening, his common sense became infinitesimal There may have been no absurdity in his notifying the independent cities of Italy that he had conferred Roman citizenship on all their inhabitants and that on a designated day, they would be called on to exercise their right of suffrage in the election of an emperor. When he doffed the mask, however, and showed that the aim of all his patriotism was the imperial crown for himself, he should have demeaned

himself with becoming dignity.
It is well known that Rienzi soon lost the favor of the Romans and was driven from the city by an incursion of the barons. It was his destiny, however, to again receive the office of Tribune and to become once more for a short time master of Rome. Seldom has a ruler had more promising prospects than opened before Rienzi in his second tribunate, but a few days showed that experience had taught him nothing. His profuse expenditures exhausted the treasury, and he levied new and exorbitant taxes; he became a glutton and a drunkard, and, ere long, his inflamed visage and ungainly frame excited disgust. His vanity led him to regard the sombre silence which soon surrounded him as indicative of unlimited submission. The result of his conduct was that scarcely two months from the day of his restoration a riot broke out, the palace occupied by the Tribune was stormed, and Rienzi put to death. VI.

In a final chapter Dr. Parsons refers to the

current belief that Wycliffe was the author of

the first translation of the Bible into the English language. It is pointed out that, in an article contributed to the Dublin Review in 1894, a learned Honedictine, F. A. Gasquet, undertook te prove that the opinion is without foundation Be this as it may, it cannot be disputed that, before the time of Wycliffe and for many years after it, there was not much need of an English version of the Scriptures. Latin and French were familiar to all Englishmen who could read at all; the English language was not that of the court or of the educated classes. The rolls of Parliament and all legal documents which were not written in Latin were conched in the French tongue. Even pleadings in the courts were made in French exclusively until 1362; and then, aithough they could be made in English, the records of the same pleadings were made in Latin. Not until 1363 w s Parliament ever opened with a speech in English. Such being the state of things, it is evident that an English version of the Bible was not necessary. That such versions nevertheless existed before the days of Wycliffe is admitted by the well-known Protestant authority, the martyrologist Foxe. Dedicating to Archbishop Parker his edition of the Saxon Gospels, he writes: "If histories be well examined, we shall find, both before the Conquest and after, as well before John Wychiffe was born as since, the whole body of the Scriptures was by sundry men translated into our country tongue." Similar testimony is given by Cranmer in his prologue to the second edition of the great Bible, and Sir Thomas More says: "The whole Bible was long before his (Wycliffe's) days by virtuous and welllearned men translated into the English tongue and by good and godly people with devotion and soberness well and reverently read." The purpose of the article in the Dublin Review is to prove that the Scriptures commonly known as the Wycliffite are really Catholic versions by our pre-Reformation forefathers. As regards the pretended unwillingness of Catholics to popularize the Bible, we are reminded by Dr. Parsons in a footnote that it has been shown beyond the possibility of a doubt that, in mediaval Germany, there existed some seventytwo partial versions of the vernacular Scriptures and fifty complete translations, all emanating from Catholic sources. Numerous translations existed also during the middle ages of France, with this difference, that, while most of the French manuscripts are lares as lare, umes, a fact which points to their use as a.ds to personal piety rather than as books for library use. It is noteworthy that as early as 1198 Pope Innocent III., writing to the Bashop of Metz, speaks of many French versions of the Bible as then current.

A Puritan Housewife. The Messrs, Scribner have projected a series of blographies of typical or distinguished women of colonial or revolutionary times. The purpose is to present a collection of narratives illustrating the manners and customs, ways of life, and modes of thought of the people of the Puritan, the Knickerbocker, and the Cavaller sections of the country from the days of the earliest colonists down to the middle of the present century. To this end use is made of ocuments usually ignored as trivial by historians, to wit: old letters, wills, inventories, bills, &c., from which may be gleaned many curious and entertaining details of the daily life of the women of the colonial and revolutionary epochs. In addition to these materials. of course, diaries, memoirs, autobiographies, and all the ordinary sources of information will be drawn upon. The author of the initial volume Is Mrs. Acres Mouse Eastle, and she has chosen for her subject Margaret Winthrop, wife of Gov. John Winthrop of Massachusetts, and the daughter of Sir John Tyndal, a man of influence in Essex county, England. Mrs. Winthrop did not come from England until some years after her husband, and thus her biographer has occasion to deplet manor life in England in the time of the first Stuart King, especially that phase of it which reflected the Purltan spirit of the day. An interesting contrast is thus presented between the manners and customs of Puritan England and those of Massachusetts. We are told that the next two volumes of the series will be allotted to Martha Washington and Dolly Madison, and thus exemplify the lavish hospitality which characterized in later times the landed gentry of Virginia; the official functions over which these ladies presided in Philadelphia, New York, and Washington will form nother noteworthy chapter in the history of American social life. A fourth volume, which will recount the life of Mercy Ous Warren, the sister of James Otis, will indicate the part which leading Rosson women played in the patriotic culminating in the Revolution, movement while, in still later volumes, various aspects of Knickerbsicker life, both the town life that centred in Rowling Green and the mainer life of the Valley of the Hudsen, will be every adequate treatment. It is to be hoped that the whole series will trach the standard of excellence fixed by the initial volume. In some three hundred and thirty pages Mrs. Earle has condensed the outcome of an imwhich has functions similar to year.

Which has functions similar to year.

Chamber's Journal, in speaking of this funges, says that it thrives be t in boiled bran, in which is grapher has paid but little need to the records of the court and the lactionable town iffe, or of the pumpous routhe of vast estates, but has gathered her materials wholly from existing records of the life of the families of functions shall be grown. The plant spreads on the flast of the bran with creat rapidity. The funges is collivated at a congratively low temperature, lish country gentiamen. She assertes us that, it is received any created with minute vireless in the season of the life of the mass given the words and thoughts of Furtian diary writers and authors, believ in that, in methods of iving and thoughts of the world be chosely in bonch with its life of John world have an the bank look of the sampest of the permitted of the sampest of the mildest families of the sampest of the sam narrative. We say good selber, because at the beginning of the recentering country different countries of Engineed were like different outsides, and the recounting of the manners and contours of residence of Northumberland Towers. or Yorkshire could never be accepted as a role pertrayal of the ways of living in a Suffoik

NOTES ON SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY.

A satisfactory method of removing sticky deposits of grease and dirt from parts of machinery by means of soon live is reported as England. To 1,000 parts by pright of water, about ten or lifteen parts existic wala and 100 parts ordinary soda is the This mixture is bolled, and the parts of the machinery that is bolled, and the parts of the machinery that are to be cleaned are proved in it, this treat ment having the effect of que ky lossening at grease, oil, and dirt, arise which the metal is thoroughly washed and dired. The action of the lye is, of course, to form with the grease samps soluble in water; and to mevent the cubricating oil, &c., hardening applicit parts of the machinery when in use, a third part of kerosene is added. it. this treate

Some of the chief causes for the straining of bollers and all that comes from such deficiencles end plates too thick or too rigidly stayed, impure feed water, presence of oil in the boils ers, and the use of cold feed water are discussed by a writer in the Practical Engineer, In regard to the important matter of impure feed water, he believes that purification can generally be reached by proper treatment begenerally be reached by proper treatment before going to the boiler, that is, by a chemical process and filtration—or, if the first cost
of the plant necessary is too great, or space
is very limited, by introducing suitable reagents adapted to affect th impurities found by
analysis to be present in the water; by the later method the lime sairs, &c., are randily precipitated and rendered easily removable by blowing out, in addition to gradually softening existing incrustation. Further, if mineral oil of
good quality be used in the cylinders only in
such quantities as are really required for lubrication, there is no serious danger to be apprehended from the small proportion reaching the
boiler with the feed water, unless there be carbonate of lime present in considerable quanity, in which case oil is not to be admitted under any circumstances whatever, for reasons
readily apparent. readily apparent.

A substitute for the wooden parts in the construction of Government ships something which will neither burn nor splinter has long been a desideratum, and, under official encouragement, has led to some valuable experments. Among the substitutes proposed for this purpose, and which are claimed to fulfit the end desired, is one compounded of a cheap wood mixed with fine sawdust, treated chemically with an insoluble fireproof substants chemically with an insoluble fireproof sub-stance, rendered non-conducting and pre-ised into form for use; another consists wholly of fine cellulose material, rendered non-inflam-mable, fireproof, non-conducting, impervious to water, and moulded with a body work of wire netting; another description is made in slabs intended to be fastened as a lining to metal or wood.

The useful chemic known as oxalic acid. employed in dycing and some other arts. is now mentioned as one of the commercially valuable products derived from sawdust. A familiar process is that in which nitric acid and sugar are boiled for some time, then evaporated to dryness, the oxalle acid thus formed being purified by crystalization from water. A much cheaper material than sugar in this case, as alleged, is sawdust, an alkali being employed instead of an acid, as well as at a bigher tempe attire; the operation is conducted in an iron vessel of proper size and shape, and either caustic sods or potash is employed, the yield being greater with the latter. In regard to this point, however, experiment is said to prove that a mixture of ferty parts of caustic potash to sixty parts of caustic sods will produce as large a yield as when potash alone is used, practicel the operation is performed in shallow vessels with thin layer of the material, avoiding, as far as possible, the fusion of the mass; soft woods, like pine and fir, produce larger quantities of oxale acid than hard wood like oak, and the rule is a proportion of wood to alkali not exceeding seventy-five to one hundred, and a temperature of about 480° Fahrenheit. much cheaper material than sugar in this case.

A published statement of investigations made in Ohio is authority for the fact, as ascertained. that the weight of 100 cubic feet of natural gas is 4.787 pounds. It is composed of 1.072 pounds of hydrogen and 3,215 pounds of carbon, and requires for its perfect combustion 969 3-10 cubic feet of air weighing 74,561 pounds. It makes in burning 0.648 pounds of pounds. It makes in burning 9.648 pounds of steam and 11.788 pounds of carbonic acidequal to 100 and produces 94.593 heat units when the steam is not condensed; the total produces of combustion being, therefore, steam, 9.648; carbonic acid, 11.788; nitrogen, 57.412; or a total of 78.848 reaids, it is stated that if these products of combustion escape at a temperature of 900° they carry if with them 12.12 units of heat or should be per cent, of all the heat presenced by the fires or, if they escape at 300°, they carry of fee. with them 12,712 units of heat, or about 14 per rent, of all the heat presidired by the first, or, if they escape at 300°, they carry of less than seven per cent. If, however, for any reason twice as much air as is necessary to combistion passes through the fire and escapes up the chinney along with these products of combustion, as is so often the case, there must then, at a temperature of doo?, be a loss of heat units equal to about 26 per cent, of all the heat produced by the fire.

The new flashlight lately added to the apple ances of photography is a machine made of brass and nicke, which stands about six feet high; on the top of the apparatus is an endless chain, to which are attached twelve wooden cups containing from ten to twenty grains of "Luxow" powder, and protruding from one of "Luxow" powder, and protruding from one side of these small cups are little pieces of from wire. About half way down the stand are two small points, similar to the carboas in an electric light; and attached to the stand are two lines of rubber pipe, one of which is connected with the camer. In the centre of the pipe is a rubber ball, like that of an atomizer, and when the person whose photograph is to be obtained has been focussed, the built is pressed with the hand, causing the shutter on the camera to be released, and at the same time making era to be released, and at the same time making with the hand, causing the snutter on the camera to be released, and at the same time making an electrical connection which lights a fuse in the little wooden box at the top and causes the newder to lightle, thus making the exposure. The machine is said to work very quickly, and it has been pronounced the most wonderful device yet brought forward in the photographic art.

An article which recently appeared in the Illack Diamond-a journal devoted to one of the largest and most important mining interests in the world-says that in the timbering of mines large quantities of timber are wasted and unnecessary costs incurred. The percentage of cost for this purpose varies greatly, of course, aocording to the system adopted, and in this connection the fact is noted that many mines are timbered with cour, which, in its turn, is mined, strange as it may be, from a timber mine. In the State of New Jersey there are spots where vast quantities of timber have lain for axes, which, when dug out of the ground, is found to be intact, and, to all intents and purposes, firm and sound as if it were recently cut for building purposes. In recarl to its origin, the sheary is that a vast timber forces was haid low by some condict of nature, and then covered up by an upper stratum of earth, which has successed in preserving the trees, the first of which was discovered some years ago. It is interesting to note that the system of mining consists in first locating the tree with a rod, and then digating along its length, and by filling the treach with water, causing the tree to rice. Some of the trees are said to have been discovered at a depth of eighty feet. for this purpose varies greatly, of course, ac-

Some of the textile journals contain an se count of what is termed a really beautiful invention, brought forward in England, for imitating brocaded or embroidered work. Ascording to this method one of the all-overground rollers is employed, which prints its ground reliers is employed, which prints its quota of the ground lines all over the piece, but in undeveloped analine black, which may be re-sisted or prevented from development upon printing the head flawer or pattern in imita-tion of brounded relief of such numbers of col-ora as is convenient. The remaining a second set of lines are printed at the remaining and for producing the effect in the ground from a valler which is only engraved with those lines set of lines are printed at the requisite angles for producing the effect in the ground from a roller which is only engraved with those lines fitting in the spaces between the various raterns desired to appear in relief, loaving blank spaces where these patterns should fall. Thus, as the various rulers print on the fabric in creet register, there is finally produced, on development, a printed cutton cloth on which a clear head flower or pattern stands out in proof relief upon an initiation watered or moire are tages or other special ground effect.

The latest contribution of Japan to the indus trial arts is a new ferment or yeast discovered by Jokichi Talamine, a chemist of that conn This ferment is derive I from a vegetable